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FIRST EDITION

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THE CRISIS IN FRANCE.

THE MILITARY SITUATION. No Material Change Since Yesterday-The French Still "Concentrating" and the Prus-

stans Still "Advancing." Last night's cable telegrams do not note any material change in the military situation. The "noble infant" has sought refuge in London, and the Emperor has reiterated his determination to return to Paris "victorious or dead." Later details of the battle among the hills west of Saarbruck, on the 7th, coming from Prussian sources, stated that the contest was more important and more disastrous to the French than at first supposed. Frossard's corps was dispersed, the entire camp of one division and many magazines being captured, while prisoners were taken by the thousand and are still coming in.

The French forces have entirely disappeared from the Prussian front, and none are to be seen by the Prussian patrols, who are within gunshot of Metz. All the obstructions within a mile of the fortifications of this stronghold. say the French reports, have been destroyed, including houses and trees, and everything is being put in readiness for the next onslaught of the Prussians. The French forces are being steadily concentrated around Metz, and on the road between that point and the capital. Large numbers of the Garde Mobile are leaving Paris for the front, and advices from the camp at Chalons state that they are full of fight and confidence. Meanwhile the Prussians are steadily advancing, the only obstruction encountered being villages filled with the wounded of the French. The next contest cannot be much longer delayed.

THE POLITICAL SITUATION.

The Sacrifice of Ollivier to the Pury of Paris-Coups Palikao's Ministry-Sketches of the

The fury of the mob within the walls of the Palais Bourbon was not less than that of the mob without on Tuesday afternoon. Says the Paris Patrie, "When M. Ollivier attempted to speak the second time the deputies of the Lex rushed upon him and would have murdered him had not members of the Right promptly interposed." With such manifestations of the temper of the deputies before us, we can express no surprise at the downfall of the Ollivier Ministry at the very opening of the session of Corps Legislatif.

Yesterday afternoon Count Palikao announced the names of the new Ministry which he has gathered about him, to save what is possible from the wreck of the "Constitutional" Empire. They are as follows:-

Premier and Minister of War-Marshal Cousin de

Mentanban, Count de Palikao, succeeding Viscount
Dejean, who held the position ad interim, in the absence of Marshal Le Bouf with the army.

Minister of Foreign Affairs—The Prince de la
Tour d'Auvergne, succeeding the Duke de Gramont.

Minister of Marine—Admiral Rigault de Genouilly,

no heid the same position under Ollivier. Minister of the Interior—M. Henri Chevreau sucding the Chevalier de Valdrome. finister of Justice—M. Grandperret, succeeding

M. Emile Ollyler.

Minister of Finance—M. Pierre Magne, succeeding
M. Emile Alexis Segris.

Minister of Public Works—Baron Jerome David, Minister of Public Works—Baron Jerome David, succeeding M. Charles Ignace Plichon.

Minister of Public Instruction—M. Jules Brame, succeeding M. Jacques Philippe Mege.

Minister of Agriculture and Commerce—M. Clement Duvernois, succeeding M. Charles Louvet.

President of the Council of State—M. Busson

llault, succeeding M. Esquiron de Parien. The composition of the new Cabinet signifies a casting to the winds of all pretensions to Liberialism and constitutional rule, but France is not less desperate than Napoleon, and a cable telegram announces that the new ministry gives general satisfaction and tends to unite the nation. Its novelty rather than its strength is what satisfies the French people, and if the armies are to be driven still further back towards Paris, the new ministry will quickly share the fate of the old.

We gave yesterday an elaborate sketch of Count Palikao, the new Premier and Minister of War. Below we present sketches of the other

members of the Cabinet. Prince Henri de la Tour d'Auvergne, the Min-ister of Fereign Affairs, a descended from one of the most ancient and dis-tinguished families of France, dating back from Aifred, created Count of Auvergne by Charles the Simple, King of France, during the latter part of the ninth century. Many of the members were famous

a prominent position in Prance for nearly one thouand years. The genealogical hissory of this family is a most interesting one.

The subject of this sketch, Prince Henri Godfrey Bernard Alphonse, is the chief of the branch of Lauraquais, into which the house has merged, and is now known by the title of Prince de la Tour Auvergne-Lauraquais. He was born at Paris on the 23d of October, 1823, his father being Prince Charles Melchoir Philippe Bernard. At the time of the coup d'etat, in 1852, he was a young man of twenty-nine years of age, and was distinguished for his abilities, diplomatic and otherwise. By promptly giving in his adhesion to the empire he was received into the favor of the Emperor Napoleon, and after the lapse of a few years was named Senator of France, holding that position with credit. In August, 1851, he was married to Emilie Celeste de Montault des Hes, by whom he had one child, a boy, born in June, 1852. His wife died at Florence on the 8th of March, 1857, and he has not married

Before 1863 Prince de la Tour d'Auvergne held no special diplomatic position under the empire, although he frequently took an active part in the political affairs of France. On the 13th of October of that year, however, he was appointed Ambassador Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary to the Court of St. James, and in the December following arrived in London and presented his credentials. This position he continued to hold until July 18, 1869, when he was called by the Emperor to the position of Minister of Foreign Affairs. His ministry fell at the close of the year, and he gave way to Count Napoleon Daru, under the Ollivier regime. On the 20th of July of the present year he was sent by the Emperor as Ambassador to Vienna.

The Prince is a man of much ability, but he has already taken the oath of fidelity to four different governments whose principles were directly opposed to each other. All his tendencies are of a reactionary character.

Admiral Rignult de Genouilly, the Minister of Marine, was born at Rochefort on the 12th of April, in the year 1807, and admitted to the naval school of France in 1825. He entered the navy in 1830, was captain of a frigate in 1841, a member of the Admiraity in Paris in 1858, and Rear Admiral of the naval brigade operating against Sebastopol in 1856. In the year 1856 he was despatched to command the flect in the China seas, and there ce-operated with the British at the capture of Canton in 1857. He was promoted Grand Officer of the Legion of Honor in 1855, and created Senator in 1860. In the month of January, 1862, he took command of the squadron in the Me diterranean, and was named Admiral January 27, 1864. He was made Minister of Marine in 1867, and on July 18, 1869, was appointed to the same position in Prince de la Tour, d'Auvergne's Cabinet, retaining his portfolio under M. Ollivier, and still holding over now that there is another change. The Admiral has paid much attention to the development of the French iron-ciad fleet, and is a practical as well as a scientific officer. He is a writer also, and has edited some two or three popular works.

M. Hearl Chevrens, the Minister of the Inte-

was born as Belleville, in the department of the Seine, on the 28th of April, 1823. His father, who died in 1854, and was at one time a school teacher at Saint Maud, was a member of the Corps Legislatif. For some time he engaged in literary pursuits, and published, in connection with M. Laurent Pichat, a volume of peetry entitled "Les Voyageuses" (1844-8). In 1848 he was a candidate for the Constituent Asfew days of the age necessary for eligibility to a seat. From the start he showed himself a warm partisan of Louis Napoleon, whose candidature for the office of President received his active and enthusiastic support. On the 10th of January following he was rewarded for his devotion to the interests of the newly-elected chief of the State by his appointment as Prefect of the Ardeche, although he was then less than twenty-six years old. In this capacity all his energies were bent to the successful achievement of the coup d'état, and after the establishment of the empire he was further rewarded with the position of Secretary-General to the Minister of the Interior and of Agriculture and Commerce. Here again his zeal in behalf of Imperialism had full scope and play. He subsequently served with credit as a member of the General Council of Ardeche, and in 1853 he was appointed Counsellor of State, and charged to defend the budget before the Corps Legislatif. But, in conse quence of some difficulties of detail and differences of opinion with M. de Persigny he recired from the Ministry, and was appointed Prefect of the Depart-ment of Nantes in 1855. This position he held until 1860, when he was made Prefect of the Lotre In-fericure, and in 1864 Prefect of the Rhone. During this latter year he was again made Counsellor of State. In 1865 M. Chevreau was appointed a Sepator of France, and on January 6, 1870, was made Prefect of the Department of the Seine, in place of Baron Haussmann, whose sacrifice was imperatively demanded by the supporters of the new "Constitutional" regime. M. Chevreau is a man of ability and great energy of character, but he has always heretofore been a servile tool of the Emperor, and in the Interior office will have abundant opportunity to render himself obnoxious to the anti-Imperialists. Among other Imperial favors bestowed upon him is that of Commander of the Legion of Honor.

was born at Perigeux, December 3, 1806, of what is termed an "obscure" family. In 1831 he was ad mitted as an arecat, or attorney, and was patronized by Marshal Bugeaud. M. Fould noticed his peculia ability, and soon afterwards took charge of his political fortunes. He became a member both of the Constituent and Legislative Assemblies, in which bodies he was recognized as a practical man, although not much of a debating speech-maker. He retired to private life in 1838, but was recalled to official position as Under Secretary of State for Finance in 1849. April 10, 1851, he was appointed Minister of Public Works, in which office he was very successful during three or four years. He was an able advocate of railroad extension in France, and during the interim inspected all the main lines already laid down in the empire and in other countries of Europe, adopting and suggesting im-provements. From 1854 to 1860 he held the portfolio of Finance. In 1860 he was nominated Minister without a porifolio, retired from the Cabinet in 1863 in consequence of a disagreement with M. Fould, and was named a Privy Councillor in April of the last-name year. In July, 1869, he was again called to the head of the Department of Finance, and held that position until relieved by M. Buffet in January, 1870. For a time it was thought that he would be retained in the Cabinet under the new ministry, but it was found that there were so many factions in the Liberal ranks to conciliate that it would be necessary for him to vacate the position to which he has just been restored. He is an accomplished and experi-enced financier, having originated and successfully negotiated nearly all the great loans which the Emperor has found necessary to bolster up his throne. In December, 1852, he was appointed a Senator. In 1851 he was made a commander of the Legion of Honor, subsequently a grand officer, and in 1854 received the grand cross.

M. Pierre Magne, Minister of Finance,

Baron Jerome David, the Minister of Public Works, was born at Rome on the 50th of June, 1823. He is grandson to the great painter of the Revolution His baptismal name was in honor of his godfather, Jerome Bonaparte, King of Westphalia. He was first educated for the naval service, but subsequently studied for the army at the military school of St. Cyr. He got his commission and served with the army in Algeria. He filled several ad-

served in the Crimean war on the staff of Prince | Sardinia, although it was well known that the Napoleon. After the war he retired from the army. In 1859 he was elected Deputy for the Gironde, and was returned again in 1863 and 1869 by large majorities. He served as secretary in the bureau of the Chamber, and subsequently was apnointed the Vice-President of the legislative body in the sessions of 1867, 1868, and 1869. He was an active debater, and took special interest in Algerian affairs, free trade, and foreign questions. He has been always strongly conservative, and his renomination as Vice-President in June, 1869, led to the retirement of M. Schneider, until the Emperor personally interfered.

M. Jules Brame, the Minister of Public Instruc-tion, for a long time known in French political circles, was born at Lille January 9, 1808, and was elected a member of the General Council for the Council of Czycoing. He became a member of the Corps Legislatif for the Department of the Nord in 1857, and was re-elected in 1863, and again in 1869. He has since achieved a deserved reputation as the author of "L'Emigration des Indes."

M. Clement Duvernols, the Minister of Agri-culture and Commerce, has been recently conspicuous in French journalism by his servile subserviency to the Emperor, whose views he was regarded as expressing in the Pouple Francais. He recently retired from that journal, Many political pamphlets have been written by him in the interests of Imperialism. It was M. Duvernois who led the assault on the Ministry on Tuesday afternoon, proposing and insisting on the order of the day, for the purpose of securing a vote of a want of confidence in Ollivier and his colleagues.

WARS OF THE SECOND EMPIRE.

The Fereign Conflicts in Which Napoleon III Has Engaged-The Crimea, Italy, China, and

The present French Emperor, conscious probably of a deficiency in military genius in comparison with the First Napoleon, has for the most part refrained from appearing before the world as an actual leader of armies. Notwithstanding, however, that his most brilliant successes have been in the capacity of diplomatist, he has been anxious to gratify the French love for glory and to consolidate his own power [by waging successful war against foreign enemies. If the Emperor has obtained for himself no celebrity as a general, it cannot be denied that the record of the French armies during his reign has been a brilliant one. The manner in which he was forced to withdraw his troops from Mexico at the bidding of the United States was the first serious loss of prestige that he sustained, and it was looked upon as practically a defeat, although no armed force was brought into the field to support Mr. Seward's diplomacy.

The Crimenn War. When Napoleon III assumed the imperial purple it was necessary for him to make himself both feared and respected at home and abroad by proving that he was no unworthy successor to his great uncle. The attack of Russia upon Turkey soon gave him the opportunity he desired, and in the war which ensued France managed to drag England into the contest, but secured for herself pretty much all the honors.

This war was brought about by the cunning

management of Napoleon, who was anxious to make French influence predominate in the East, and at the same time to engage in a contest that would afford opportunities for gratifying the thirst for military glory of the French people. He began a dispute with the Emperor Nicholas about the guardianship of the holy places at Jerusalem, and succeeded in exciting that monarch to the fighting point. Then he abandoned so much of his claim as was sufficient to appease the jealousy of England and to excite her against Russia, The Russian Emperor, led on by these manœuvres, commenced an attack upon Turkey, and Napoleon, by consummating an alliance with England, obtained the position and recognition as a leading sovereign of Europe that he desired. The war between Russia and the two allied Western powers broke out in 1854, and on the 14th of September the allied armies affected a landing at the bay of Eupatoria, in the Crimean peninsula, and commenced to march upon Sebastopol. Upon the banks of the river Alma they were met by the Russian army, under the command of Prince Mentschikoff, and on the 20th of September a bloody battle ensued, in which the Russians were totally defeated. On the 25th of September Balaklava was seized by the British troops, and on the 9th of October the southern section of Sebastopol was regularly besieged, the northern part of the city being beyond the reach of the allies owing to the entrance of the harbor having been rendered inaccessible by sunken vessels. The Russians were badly routed at the battles of Balaklava and Inkermann on October 25 and November 5, and afterwards they mostly confined themselves to the defense of the city. It was at the battle of Inkermann that the French troops under Canrobert won special distinction. In this fight 3011 Russians were killed and 5097 wounded. The English loss was 462 killed and 2143 wounded, and the French loss 389 killed and 1337 wounded.

During the siege the Russians made frequent sorties, and some of the contests which ensued frem these were of sufficient magnitude to warrant being designated as regular battles. Among the most prominent of these incidental fights were a brilliant but unsuccessful attack by the French upon a new redoubt: their first assault upon the Malakoff and Redan, June 18, 1855, and the battle of the Tchernaya, August 16, in which the Russians with 50,000 infantry and 6000 cavalry made a desperate effort to cripple the enemy. The trenches having been advanced close enough, the final bombardment commenced on the 5th of September and was continued for three days, The Malakoff and Redan were stormed on September 8, and captured after a tremendous struggle, and Sebastopol was at the mercy of the allies. With the conclusion of the siege of Sebastopol the war with Russia virtually ended, and the French Emperor found himself recognized as the leader of European politics.

The Italian War.
Having humbled Russia, Napoleon III next turned his attention to Austria, and he determined to aid in establishing an Italian kingdom, which would be the natural ally of France and a perpetual barrier against the extension of Austrian influence and power to the south. A few remarks addressed to the Austrian Ambassador by the French Emperor on NewYear, day, 1859, informed the world of his intention to interfere between Austria and Italy, and so soon as hostilities were publicly determined upon, the Italians were assured that the coming contest did not mean for them merely a change of masters, but a free and united Italy under a liberal and progressive government. The quaras statesmen or soldiers, and the entire line has neid | ministrative positions of importance in Algeria, and | rel in its | including a between Austria and | establish the ascendancy of the Latin race on |

latter small power was backed by France, and the Austrians, taking the initiative, crossed the

Ticino April 26-29, 1859.

The popular risings in the several States compelled the Duke of Modena, the Duchess of Parma, and the Duke of Tuscany to flee to Austria, and the Italian troops, under the lead of Garibaldi, made themselves masters of the greater portion of Italy. For nearly a month the Austrians did not venture to rick a battle, but occupied themselves with plundering the province of Lomellina. The French Emperor despatched his forces to the field as the ally of Sardinia, and the Austrians having suffered reverses at Montebello on the 20th of May, and at Palestro on the 31st of May and 1st of June, they recrossed the Ticino. A great battle occurred near Magenta on the 4th of June, in which the Austrians were totally defeated, and they were compelled to abandon Milan and the whole northwestern portion of Lombardy. Retreating to the line of the Minclo they were met by the French at Solferino on the 24th of June, and again suffered a defeat. By this time the attitude of Prussia began to be threatening, and the French Emperor was apparently unwilling to follow the Austrians within the lines of their famous quadrilateral. He therefore took all Europe by surprise by concluding a truce and making arrangements for a personal interview with the Emperor of Austria at Villafranca. This interview took place on the 11th of July, and the preliminaries of a treaty were agreed upon by which a portion of Lombardy, exclusive of the fortresses of Mantua and Peschiera, were ceded to Sardinia for the sum of \$42,000,000. The practical result of this war was the establishment of the Italian kingdom under Victor Emanuel, who ceded his dukedom of Savoy to France in exchange for the Italian

The Chinese War. The next power against which the French arms were directed was China. Various alleged acts of outrage and treachery on the part of the Chinese authorities in defiance of the treaties with European powers induced the French and English in 1860 to send out joint expeditions to punish past misdeeds and to secure guarantees for the future. The French forces were under the command of General Montauban. who, in conjunction with the English, attacked and captured the fort of Taikou, at the mouth of the river Pelho, on the 20th of August. On the 21st of September this officer achieved another great victory at Palikao, which was followed by the plunder and demolition of the Chinese Emperor's summer palace and the entry of the European forces into Pekin. The Chinese were forced to accept the terms dictated by the allies, and they concluded treaties which secured the protection of European interests in the East. General Montauban was created Count of Palikao on the 22d of January, 1866, as a reward for his services in China, and under that name he has now been again prominently brought before the public as the head of the new French

Ministry. In 1861 the French engaged in a war with Cochin China, and succeeded in capturing a large portion of the country and establishing a firm foothold there. The object of this war was ostensibly to punish the Emperor Tu-Duc for his cruelty towards the French missionaries and the Christian converts, but the real reason was to obtain possession of the country, so that the French influence in the East might rival

The Mexican War.

The first serious loss of prestige sustained by Napoleon III was on account of his Mexican blunder. This was a mistake of the most serious character from first to last, and the mortification of the Emperor and the French people was extreme when the French troops were withdrawn at the demand of the United States, and the unfortunate Maximilian left to his fate. The civil war in the United States apparently gave the French Emperor the opportunity he desired to establish himself on this continent, and to oppose a check to the growing power of the American republic. It was evidently expected that the result of the contest between the North and the South would lead to the disruption of the Union, or that, even if victorious, the North would not be in a condition to engage in a war with France, so that Mexico could be converted into a French province with comparative impunity. The pretext for the invasion of Mexico was reparation for injuries inflicted upon subjects of France and the payment of debts which the Mexican government had practically repudiated. England and Spain, who had similar grievances, consented to join with France in an expedition against Mexico, but they thought better of it when it began to be apparent that Napoleon had other objects in view than the mere redress of grievances, and the proposition to place the Austrian Archduke Maximilian in Mexico as Emperor induced both England and Spain to abandon their alliance with France. The allies effected a landing in Mexico early in January, 1862, but they falled to receive that cordial welcome that the enemies of the Mexican President Juarez had led them to expect; and although they obtained possession of a large portion of the country, they really had very little success in the direction which they most desired. England and Spain finally withdrew from the alliance, and the French carried on the war alone. Juarez in the mean time rallied the Mexicans to his standard and succeeded in giving the enemy constant annoyance, although no battles of any importance occurred. In October, 1862, General Forey arrived with thirty-five thousand French troops and immediately marched upon Puebla, where he was repulsed with great loss. In addition to this disaster the smallpox broke out among the French troops, and the people of the United States expressed such dissatisfaction at the French occupation of Mexico that it began to be feared that they would interfere in spite of the enormous war they already had on their hands. About the middle of February the French made another advance on Puebla and captured it, and on the 10th of June General Forey entered the city of Mexico. The Republicans all fled, and the Imperialists and adherents of the Church party who remained received the French with enthuslasm. A provisional government was established, and on the 10th of July the Assembly elected the Archduke Maximilian of Austria Emperor. This prince was the candidate of the

Emperor Napoleon, through whom he hoped to

the Western Continent, and in electing him the Mexican Assembly was simply obeying orders. Maximilian, after much hesitation, was induced by Napoleon to accept the throne thus offered him, and on the 28th of May, 1863, he and his wife landed at Vera Cruz and he assumed the dignity and authority of Emperor. In the meantime Juarez and his faithful adherents were in the northern part of the country, and although defeated were not dismayed. A desultory war was carried on against the so-called empire, but Maximilian assumed that the Republicans were no better than bandits, and undertook to treat them as such. In the meantime the civil war in the United States drew to an end, and the clamor for the withdrawal of the French from Mexico became more intense. Napoleon found that he had gained very little glory by his attempt to secure the ascendancy of the Latin race in the New World, and foresaw a contest with the victorious armies of the United States if he did not yield to the demand made upon him by Mr. Seward. The expedition had already cost one hundred and thirty millions of dollars and eleven thousand men; the real empire of Maximilian was limited to the area commanded by the French troops, and practically the whole affair was a lamentable failure. Napoleon saw that if he could not make himself master of Mexico with only Juarez and his adherents to contend with, would have no hope whatever the United States entered the

arena; and on the 6th of February the French troops evacuated the City of Mexico, leaving Maximilian to his fate. The Mexican expedition was a serious loss of prestige for the Emperor Napoleon. It exposed him to ridicule and contempt, and he has been eager ever since for an opportunity to recover his credit. The success of Prussia in 1866 was another check to him, and the war in which he is now engaged was undertaken for the double purpose of restraining the power of Prussia and of reviving

the glory of the French arms. HOW TO FIGHT FRANCE.

The Views of Prince Frederick Charles of Prussin on the French Soldier-"Selzing on the

Offensive." Prince Frederick Charles of Prussia wrote some years ago a military memoir. This memoir contained some important remarks on the condition of the Prussian troops, and a sort of comparison between their efficiency, discipline, and military organization and those of the French. It was prophetic in its very title:— "The Art of Fighting the French Army." The opinions are not only valuable in themselves, but they attain an added significance when it is remembered that the Prince has attained great military renown, and that he has the power of

carrying into practice the opinions which he expresses. He says:—
Those who suppose that the French fight in an irregular and desultory manner, like the hordes of Attlia, are as much in error as those who suppose them subject to the strict rules of military art. The truth must be sought between the two extremes. Undoubtedly the French army in time of war is deficient in forms, but these are replaced by simple principles and actual truths, that can be renewed at will. For instance, coups de main that had been will. For instance, coups de main that had been practiced by Moreau in the wars of the Republic, were seen again in the last Italian war. Marshal Bugeand, the most able instructor and the most experienced in contemporary military art, knew the French soldier better than any living man. He embodied their principles in his own short treatises, from which they were almost textually extracted by Marshal Saint Arnaud. The French principles of war, as briefly as I can give them, are:—

1. Absolutely to lay aside in time of war the regulations, the instructions of the barrack drill, and the very memory itself of the parade ground. There is no such thing with the French as an order of battle, a form that prevails on every occasion. The mode

no such thing with the French as an order of battle, a form that prevails on every occasion. The mode of carrying the troops into action is left to the initiative and the talents of the generals.

2. The real principle, which becomes as familiar to the soldier as to the general, rests on this truth: "moral force is superior to physical force," Napoleon himself expressed this idea when he said that moral force contributed three-fourths to success, while physical force was only wantly one fourth. while physical force was only worth one-fourth The entire education of the French soldier is on thi principle. The French disdain to manacuvre one division against another. There is no moral element in the matter. The French officer has no sense of

in the matter. The French officer has no sense of fear, of deference to superiors—he does not feel himself crushed by the presence of a chief, and every general, every officer, goes into action without misgiving, sure of himself, full of confidence in his own light and in his own courage.

The French are not above the Machiavellian arts of surprise, the unexpected, to astonish the enemy. Thus they attack with terrible cries, and the hideous aspect of the Turcos and the Zouaves may intimidate young soldiers; for which reason it is expedient to warn recruits against such practices.

aspect of the Turcos and the Zouaves may intimidate young soldiers; for which reason it is expedient to wars recruits against such practices.

3. Another French principle is to attack in close column when operating against enemies little accustomed to drill, because they are usually braver and more enterprising. On the contrary, when engaged against regular troops they fight as shirmishers and without order.

5. 4. An essential principle with the French, one indeed that they have constantly adopted in these last campaigns, is never to defend themselves in a passive manner, but to act constantly on the offensive operations. I think this defensive activity, pushed to excess, as we now see it in the French, may be charged to Marshal Bugeaud. We must do our best to raise the moral force of our own men and to depress that of the enemy. To this end we must never wait for attack at the decisive moment, but always seize on the opensive. Attacking movements in flank or rear, even if executed only by a handful of men, produce an extraordinary moral impression. These lines contain not only the advice for offensive defenses, but the means of resisting an attack; that is, not front to front, but, as in cavriry tactics, front to flank.

5. The French idea in the employment of skir-

fank.

5. The French idea in the employment of skirmishers seems to me particularly interesting. It is that "skirmishing is but an expedient" (Le tiraille.

This mode of fighting to be used when it can be done with freedom. It never should be forced by the enemy, for not his plans should be forced on us, but ours on him. This is the real moral supremacy. The enemy's skir-mishing line should not be opposed by our skirmish-ing line; that is a loss of men and time. Skirmish-ers must act against the flank. Better still, how-ever, is it to repel such an attack to send in a squad-ron at a charge, and without firing to break the

ever, is it to repel such an attack to send in a squadron at a charge, and without firing to break the opposing line.

6. We must pay special attention in the French attack to that spirit which is peculiar to them, and which Carar himself has remarked. He considered their first burst as the most dangerons and each successive one less imposing. The veheneuce of attack, the French fary of the wars of the revolution, is to this day a national characteristic. The French have the habit, in beginning a fight, to sound the enemy's line, and so to take an account of his forces and their disposal. They have recourse to partial attacks which seek to penetrate to the point whose possession is deemed useful. If these are not immediately successful, they wait until the supports come up. In Italy, however, they changed this opening, and by and by throwing out heavy skirmishing parties, and at the same time charging in column. In this way, at soffering, they surprised the Austrians just as they were forming for the march after their dinner. The videttes were driven in without firing a shot. The outposts fell back, and then the fight began. The French had ground of their own choice, besides the moral effect of a surprise. The instance proves how they accommediate themselves to circumstances. The French habitually employ their best men. The corps d'elité are composed of picked men, whose ambition is excited and whose places ever can be supplied by those who are emilious of their consideration. They march in the front rank and thus maintain the French supremacy, and make subsequent work easier for the less reliable troops. It is a theory that immediately on attack is decided upon; it cannot be made too promptly. The firing is prolonged as little as possible, and in the Italian war the musketry would scarcely last a quarter of an hour before the bayonst was brought into use. The French attack at the double quick, in which they are well drilled in time of peace, so that they do not lose their breath by the time they come up with t

Arnaud says, in writing to his wife from the Crimea:

—"The English attacked some strong redoubts and lost more men than we did. My brave boys run, while the Englishmen are satisfied to walk." The first assault being thus at the double, the skirmishers advance without firing till they get within one hundred and fifty feet of the enemy—the columns are moving up behind them. This impetuous assault in column and in open order terrifies the enemy. If successful this disorder is soon rectified, but if repulsed disorder and confusion are inevitable.

inevitable.

Frenchmen don't understand an orderly retreat.

They try to get ahead of each other, and their night becomes a general sauve qui peut. This is one of their great failures, which must be selzed on the moment by sending cavalry and infantry in pursuit—as they

"LOUIS AND I,"

Thuckerny's Foreshudowing of Modern Napo-leonic Bulletins.

Thackeray, in his "Burlesques," describes the history of the next French revolution, and attributes a proclamation to Louis Napoleon which pictures his theatrical and humbug propensities in lifelike colors. There is a wonderful similarity between Thackeray's invention and the proclamations recently issued by Napoleon III.

and the proclamations recently issued by Napoleon III. Here is Thackeray's version:

"Soldiers! From the summit of the Pyramids forty centuries look down upon you. The sons of France now worship at the shrine of Glory! You have been promised liberty, but you have had none. I will endow you with the true, the real freedom. When your ancestors burst over the Alps were they not free? Yes; free to conquer. Let us imitate the example of those indominable myriads, and flinging a deflance to Europe, once more trample over ner, march in triumph into her prostrate capitals, and bring her kings with her treasures at our feet. This is the liberty worthy of Frenchmen.

"Frenchmen—I promise you that the Rhine shall be restored to you, and that England shall rank no more among the nations. I will have a marine that will drive her ships from the seas; the fear of Austerlitz has risen once more. The Guard dies but never surrenders. I have seen the fields of Europe where your laureis are now withering, and I have communed with the dead who repose beneath them. They ask, Where are our children? where is France? Europe no longer glitters with the shine of its tramphant bayonets—echoes no more with the shouts of its victorious cannon. Who could reply to such a question save with a blush? And does a blush become the cheeks of a Frenchman?

"No! Let us wipe from our faces this degrading mark of shame. Come as of old and rally round my eagles! You have been subject to fiddling prudence long enough. Come, brave regiments will do the rest. Henceforth the traveller in that desert island

eagles: You have been subject to fiddling prudence long enough. Come, brave regiments will do the rest. Henceforth the traveller in that desert island shall ask, 'Was it this wretched corner of the world that for a thousand years defied Frenchmen?'

"Frenchmen, up and rally! I have flung my banner to the breezes; 'tis surrounded by the faithful and the brave. Up, and let your motto be, Liberty, Equality, War all over the World.

"NAPOLEON III."

"Such is the proclamation!" says Thackeray, "such the hopes that brutal-minded and bloody adventurer holds out to our country. 'War all over the world, is the cry of the savage demon, and the friends who have rallied around him echo it in concert."

DISRAELI ON THE WAR.

Speech of the Ex-Premier on the Buropean Crisis-The Secret Treaty and England's

In the English House of Commons, July 25,

on the English House of Commons, July 25, on the motion for going into committee of supply, Mr. Disraeli said:—

It is probable that the document to which I shall have to call the attention of the House may be contained in those papers which are to be laid on the table, and that they may be accompanied by explanations. If the papers about to be distributed contain the documents and a satisfactory explanation my observations will be useless; but I am bound to say that if they do not contain that documents and say that if they do not contain that document and a satisfactory explanation, they will merit the same epithet. I regret very much that those papers are not in my possession; no one feels justified under ordinary circumstances in hurrying the Government in the production of diplomatic documents, but I can't understand, speaking, of course, with the deep can't understand, speaking, of course, with the deep want of knowledge which those not in office must necessarily labor under, I cannot understand that the awful events that may have occurred or are about to eccur could * have been preceded by a voluminous correspondence on the part of our Government with the belligerents or any other

power.

I do not know whether any change has taken place with respect to the administration of the Foreign Office in regard to the printing of papers of

Government with the beligerents of any other power.

I do not know whether any change has taken place with respect to the administration of the Foreign Office in regard to the printing of papers of this kind. If so, we shall become acquainted with the course of this brief discussion. Perhaps there may have been, from motives of economy—daughter)—which, under ordinary circumstances, might be found to be a source of great public convenience, and some security for the faithful administration of our most secret affairs; but if this be the case the delay that has occurred is not accounted for, because if we really had to appeal to the promises of the private press of the country, I own I am at a loss to conceive what can occasion this extraordinary delay that these papers presented on Friday, and expected by some members of this House to be in their hands, so that, in the intervening hours between Divine service they might feel justified, in a crisis like the present, if they thought it necessary, te look at them—daughter, and hear, hear)—whereas they have now had to come down to the House on Monday, having no papers in their hands. It appears to me that, under the circumstances, considering the great and awful results that are at stake, some explanation should be offered by the Government on this head. It seems to me extraordinary that the peace of Europe should be broken in a manner and on a scale so vast and threatening, and that Parliament should really have no conception of the cause of such a great event, and that we should go to our constituents, and when they ask us any questions, as they always do in the course of autumn, we should be perfectly unacquainted with what has occurred, and unable to satisfy their justifiable and reasonable political curiosity. Claughter).

I attribute the discordant statements that are made to the rapid and imperience mode of communication which is the characteristic of the scientific agein which we live. (Laughter). But it is not a state of affairs which prove a decimant of the that kingdom will demand the gravest consideration not only of the Government but of the House and the country. (Cheers.)

Keeping Prussian Pilots From the French.

A letter from Hanover, in the Siecle, states that the Prussian Government has removed all the male population from the Isles of Norderney, Borkum, and Juist, to prevent the French from finding native pilots. The port of Heppens is defended by the famous Krupp guns which were in the Paris Exhibition of 1867. Throughout all Hanover every one between nineteen and fifty